A unified analysis of anaphoric expressions in spoken and signed languages

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Anaphoric expressions

Referential expressions that refer to familiar entities. Dependent, but not syntactically bound (Safir 2004)

Familiar:

- Previous mention
- Familiar by common knowledge

How do we know which expression to use? A lot of options.

Anaphoric expressions

There are many anaphoric expressions.

(1) I met a girl. [DP] looked happy.

she pronoun
the girl definite description
that girl demonstrative description
Ø null argument
girl bare noun

Anaphoric expressions

Anaphoric expressions are often interchangeable:

(2) I met a girl. {She, The girl} looked happy.

But we see an interaction:

- $(3) \qquad \text{Every girl}_i \text{ thinks that Jin likes } \{ \text{ her}_{i/j}, \text{the girl}_{*i/j} \}. \qquad \qquad [\text{reading}]$
- (4) A girl entered the room. {She, The girl} looked happy. [processing]

Interaction

Processing studies:

Repeated Name Penalty

Jin entered the stage.

#Jin/He...

Repeated Noun Penalty

The singer entered.

#The singer/He...

Overt Pronoun Penalty

Jin entered the stage.

#He/Ø...

name > pronoun

noun > pronoun

overt > null

[cf. Gordon et al. 1993; Van Gompel et al. 2004]

Interaction

Referent tracking studies from corpus

[Ariel 2001; Gundel et al. 1993]

(5) Accessibility Hierarchy

[Ariel 2001]

full name > long definite description > short definite description > last name > first name > distal demonstrative + modifier > proximate demonstrative + modifier > distal demonstrative + NP > proximate demonstrative + NP > distal demonstrative > proximate demonstrative > stressed pronoun > unstressed pronoun > cliticized pronoun > verbal person inflections > zero

(6) The Givenness Hierarchy

[Gundel et al. 1993]

in focus > activated > familiar > it that, this, this N that N

 $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{uniquely identifiable} & > & \text{referential} & > & \text{type identifiable} \\ & \text{the N} & & \text{indefinite this N} & & & \text{a N} \end{array}$

No unified semantic analysis

she

pronoun

variables? hidden definite descriptions?

[Evans 1980; Kamp 1981]

the girl

definite description

uniqueness? familiarity? both?

[Heim 1982: Schwarz 2009]

that girl

demonstrative

pointing! Extended definites
[Kaplan 1969; King 2008]

Ø

null argument

constraints on pro-drop, different interpretations

[Duguine 2014; Kurafuji 2019]

girl

bare noun

interpretations, constraints, unique vs. anaphoric [Chierchia 1998b; Dayal 2009; Jenks 2015] iemonstrative

7

What we have so far

Semantics

Disjoint discussions on what each expression denotes



Language Use

Variation and distribution; Interaction in processing



How are these two related?

What are the underlying denotations that result in the distributional patterns we see?

The interpretive and distributional properties of an anaphoric expression is a result of **semantic/pragmatic competition**.

Unified analysis of anaphoric expressions

- Share the underlying structure
- Differ only in restrictions

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- Share the underlying structure
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- ightarrow uniformly derives independently observed phenomena across languages

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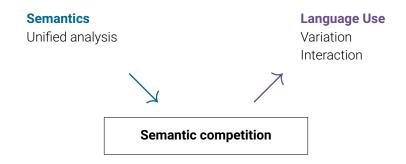
Unified analysis of anaphoric expressions

- Share the underlying structure
- Differ only in restrictions

- → naturally derives a competition through independently motivated semantic economy principles
- ightarrow uniformly derives independently observed phenomena across languages
- ightarrow links semantics to language use

Implications

I. Derives gradient properties such as variation and interaction



Implications

II. Allows distributional patterns to inform semantic analysis

Semantics

Analysis of

- pointing in ASL
- (null arguments)

Language Use

Distribution



Semantic competition

Overview

Motivation: Bare Noun Blocking

A unified analysis

 $Semantics \rightarrow Language \ use$

Cross-linguistic variation

Variation across speakers

Language use \rightarrow Semantics

Pointing in sign languages

Conclusion

Motivation: Bare Noun Blocking

Bare argument languages

Languages that freely allow bare nouns as arguments to predicates.

- Excludes languages like English

'Dinosaurs are everywhere.'

Languages investigated:

- Korean, Japanese, Mandarin, Thai, Turkish
- Russian, Belarusian, Polish
- Hindi
- American Sign Language (ASL)

Bare argument languages

Bare arguments in these languages can be definite.

[Dayal 2004; Jenks 2015; Jiang 2012; Lee 1992; Schwarz 2009]

(7) mkamlan hàw.
dog PROG bark
'The dog is barking.'

[Thai;Jenks 2015]

But which definite?

Licensing definites

What does a definite denote?

- uniqueness (Frege 1892; Russell 1905)

'The moon is bright.'

- familiarity (Heim 1982; Roberts 2002)

'I saw a mouse. The mouse..'

Schwarz 2009, 2013: Both must be semantically distinguished.

	English	Fering	German	Thai [Jenks 2015]
UNIQUE	the	а	im	Ν
FAMILIAR	the	di	in dem	N CL DEM

Uniqueness

Bare arguments can be **uniqueness** denoting.

(8) tal-i palk-ta.

moon-NOM bright

'The moon is bright.' [Korean]

(9) ay parlak moon shiny.3sg 'The moon is shining.'

[Turkish]

[Deniz Satik, Hande Sevgi, p.c.]

(10) duaŋ-can sàwàaŋ mâak. moon bright very 'The moon is very bright.'

[Thai; Jenks 2015]

(11) chand chamak raha hai. moon shine AUX.PROG AUX.PRS 'The moon is shining.'

[Hindi]

[Vyom Sharma, Ankana Saha, p.c.]

Anaphoric bare nouns

New Observation:

Bare argument languages differ in the anaphoric ability of the bare noun in **intersentential anaphora**:

'I bought book. [Book] was expensive.'

ABN	*ABN
Korean, Turkish	Hindi, Thai
Japanese	

ABN: Anaphoric Bare Noun

Data: ABN languages

Languages that allow bare nouns in intersentential anaphora:

- (12)ecev chavk-ul sa-ss-ta. chayk-un pissa-ss-ta. vesterday book-ACC buy-PAST-DECL book-TOP expensive-PAST-DECL 'I bought a book vesterday. The book was expensive.' [Korean]
- (13)watashi-wa hon-o kat-ta hon-wa takaka-ta I-TOP book-ACC buy-PAST book-TOP expensive-PAST 'I bought a book. The book was expensive.'

[Rvoichiro Kobavashi, p.c.]

[Japanese]

(14)kitap al-dı-m. kitap pahalı-vdı. INDEF book buy-PAST-1SG Book expensive-PAST 'I bought a book. The book was expensive.'

[Turkish] [Deniz Satik, Hande Sevgi, p.c.]

Data: *ABN languages

Languages that disallow bare nouns in intersentential anaphora:

- (15) Maine ek kitab kharid-i. *(Vo) kitab mehngi thi.

 1sg.erg one book.sgf buy-past.sgf (that) book.sgf expensive be.past.sgf

 'I bought a book. The book was expensive.' [Hindi]

 [Vyom Sharma p.c.]

 [variation; discussed later]
- (16) miawaan phom cee kap nakrian khon nin. **nakrian** chalaat maak. yesterday I meet with student CLF INDEF student clever very

 Yesterday I met a student. Students are very clever.' [Thai; Jenks 2015]

Generalization

ABN	*ABN
Korean, Turkish	Hindi, Thai
Japanese	
Bare nouns allow	Bare nouns restrict
anaphoric use	anaphoric use

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[Q] Do bare nouns in *ABN languages block anaphoric uses?

Generalization

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[Q] Do bare nouns in *ABN languages block anaphoric uses?

 \rightarrow No. This is a **derived property.**

*ABN: bare nouns blocked by **morphologically simplex pronoun**.

Generalization:

If a bare argument language has morphologically simplex pronouns ('simplex pronouns') for third person reference,

bare nouns are blocked from intersentential anaphora when simplex pronouns can resolve the referent.

Thai: *ABN language that has simplex pronouns.

Pronouns

	$_{ m SG}$	PL
1	chăn	rao
2	kun	
3	kăo, man	pûak kăo

Demonstratives

- dtó nán ('table that')
- pronominal uses possible

 [https://www.thailanguagehut.com]

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Hindi: No morphological distinction, but fully productive use of pronominal demonstrative *vo*

- vo kitab ('that book')
- vo ('he', 'she', 'it')

Korean: ABN language that does *not* have simplex pronouns

Pronouns

	$_{ m SG}$	$_{\mathrm{PL}}$
1	na	wuli
2	ne	nehuy
3	ku NP	ku NP-tul

Demonstratives

- ku chayksang ('that desk')
- pronominal use restricted

- (17) a. kyay: ku ay ('that kid')
 - b. ku salam ('that person')
 - c. ku kes ('that thing')

reduced

DEM N

DEM N

Other ABN languages

Japanese: All pronouns are (reduced forms of) adnominal demonstratives

[Ryoichiro Kobayashi, Michael Erlewine, pc]

(18) a. ano hito ('that person')

DEM CL

b. ko/so/a-itsu ('this/that guy')

Turkish: Distal demonstrative description with *o* used; pronominal use restricted to animate entities

(19) Bir kitap al-dı-m. {Kitap / *o / o kitap} pahalı-ydı.

INDEF book buy-PAST-1SG Book 3SG that book expensive-PAST

'I bought a book. The/that book was expensive.' [Turkish]

[Deniz Satik, Hande Sevgi, p.c.]

focusing on [3rd person] [sg]

		Simplex Pronouns	Adnominal Anaphors
ABN	Korean		ku salam
	Turkish		o kişi
	Japanese	non-existent/restricted	ano hito
*ABN	Hindi	VO	vo kitab
	Thai	kăo, mán	nan nakrian

Only in the languages that lack simplex pronouns, bare nouns are used anaphorically.

How does this generalization work?

Recall:

she

pronoun

variables? hidden definite descriptions?

[Evans 1980; Kamp 1981]

the girl

definite description

uniqueness? familiarity? both?
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[FICHTI 1902, GCTWarz 200

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null argument

constraints on pro-drop, different interpretations [Duguine 2014; Kurafuji 2019] girl

bare noun

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Combine into a unified theory!

A unified analysis

Unified theory

Idea: All anaphoric expressions share the same semantic structure

```
\begin{array}{ccc} \sup & [\lambda x. \; \text{entity}(x) \wedge ... \,] \\ \text{supremum operator} & \text{restrictions} \end{array}
```

'the maximal x such that x is an entity and ...'

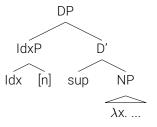
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'the maximal x such that x is an entity and ...'

$$\llbracket \mathsf{DP}_n \rrbracket =$$



[NP
$$\lambda x$$
: entity(x) \wedge female(x) ...] restrictions

$$[she_7] = DP$$

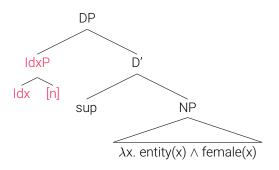
$$IdxP D'$$

$$Sup NP$$

$$\lambda x. entity(x) \land female(x)$$

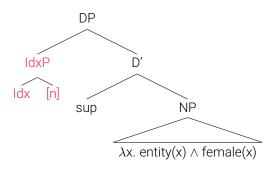
$$[\![sup]\!] = \lambda P \ \iota Z. \ \forall x \ [\![\forall y \ [P(y) \to y \sqsubseteq x] \to z \sqsubseteq x]]$$
 'smallest individual x such that all individuals y that is P form part of x'

$$[she_7] =$$



$$[Idx] = \lambda n. \ \lambda x_e$$
: x = g(n). x

$$[she_7] =$$



$$[Idx] = \lambda n. \ \lambda x_e: x = g(n). \ x$$

the (plural) individual that consists of all females defined iff x = g(7)

Semantic restrictions

```
entity(x) true if x is an entity \phi(x) \qquad \text{true if x meets the } \phi \text{ feature requirements (gender, number, etc.)} [\![NP]\!](x) \qquad \text{true of x if } [\![NP]\!](x) = 1 R(x) \qquad \text{true of x if } R(x) = 1
```

Denotations: Universal

- a. λx . entity(x) b. λx . entity(x) $\wedge \phi(x)$
- b. λx . entity(x) $\wedge \phi(x)$
- c. λx . entity(x) \wedge [NP](x)
- d. λx . entity(x) $\wedge R(x)$
- e. λx . entity(x) $\wedge [NP](x) \wedge R(x)$
- f. ..

Language-specific lexicalizations

English

Language-specific lexicalizations

English

```
[she] = \sup [\lambda x. entity(x) \land \phi(x)]
[the girl] = sup [\lambda x. entity(x) \wedge \phi(x) \wedge [girl](x)]
[[that_R girl]] = \sup [\lambda x. entity(x) \land \phi(x) \land [[girl]](x) \land R(x)]
                                              { she, the girl, that girl }
Korean
\llbracket \text{sonye} \rrbracket = \sup [\lambda x. \text{ entity}(x) \land \phi(x) \land \llbracket \text{girl} \rrbracket(x)]
[ku_R \text{ sonye}] = \sup [\lambda x. \text{ entity}(x) \land \phi(x) \land [girl](x) \land R(x)]
                                                     { N<sub>DFF</sub>, DEM N }
```

A pronoun differs from a definite *only* in **its restrictions**.

A pronoun differs from a definite *only* in **its restrictions**.

Different from:

- general assumptions [Heim & Kratzer 1998]
 - [she] = x_n [the girl] = ιx . girl(x)
- e-type analyses [Elbourne 2005; Evans 1980]

```
[she]] = [the girl] = \iota x. girl(x)

[the girl] = \iota x. girl(x)
```

Independently motivated economy principles like *Minimize Restrictors!* [Schlenker 2005] can be applied directly.

Recall redundancy: {She > #The girl} looked happy.

[Ahn 2019]	[Heim & Kratzer 1998]	[Elbourne 2005]
$\sup[\text{entity}(x) \land \phi(x)]$	X _n	ιx. girl(x)
$\sup[\text{entity}(x) \land \phi(x) \land \text{girl}(x)]$	ιx . girl(x)	ιx . girl(x)
Minimize Restrictors!		
[Schlenker 2005]	N/A	N/A
no redundant restrictions	IN/A	IN/ A
my father > #my tall father		

The competition can also be subsumed under *Maximize Presupposition!* [Heim 1991].

[Ahn 2019]	[Heim & Kratzer 1998]	[Elbourne 2005]
$sup[entity(x) \land \phi(x)]$	Xn	ιx. girl(x)
$\sup[\text{entity}(x) \land \phi(x) \land \text{girl}(x)]$	ιx . girl(x)	ιx . girl(x)
Maximize Presupposition!		
[Heim 1991]	N/A	N/A
DP		
$ dxP D'$ $\lambda n\lambda x_e : x = g(n).x sup NP$ $\vdots \lambda x$ $ dxP D'$ $\lambda x = g(n).x sup dx $ $ dxP D'$ $\lambda x = g(n).x sup dx $		
$\sup[female(x)] = g(n) \Rightarrow \sup[girl(x)] = g(n)$		

Unified theory of anaphoric expressions

Proposal:

- restrictions {entity(x), ϕ (x), [NP](x), R(x)}
- supremum operator
- presuppositional index

$$\pi$$
: $x = g(n)$

Consequence: Semantic economy principles can apply directly

- Minimize Restrictors [Schlenker 2005]
- Efficiency [Meyer 2014]
- Maximize Presupposition! [Heim 1991]

Going back to Bare Noun Blocking

*ABN Languages:

Simplex pronouns are **simpler** than bare nouns.

- Less semantic content (no NP property)
 - $[kăo] = \sup [\lambda x. entity(x) \land animate(x)]$
 - $[nakrian] = sup [\lambda x. entity(x) \land animate(x) \land student(x)]$

[Thai]

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When both are possible, **the more complex form is blocked** due to semantic economy (*Minimize Restrictors!*, Efficiency [Meyer 2014]).

```
{ kăo , <del>nakrian</del> , ... }
```

Going back to Bare Noun Blocking

ABN Languages:

No simplex pronouns that can block bare nouns.

- Bare noun is the lowest element in the scale
- The only other alternative: ku haksayng

```
{ haksayng , ku haksayng }
```

- $[haksayng] = sup [\lambda x. entity(x) \land \phi(x) \land student(x)]$ [Korean]
- $[ku \ haksayng] = sup [\lambda x. \ entity(x) \land \phi(x) \land student(x) \land R(x)]$

Bare Noun Blocking



- Not that *ABN languages block anaphoric bare nouns
- Bare nouns are *blocked* by simplex pronouns in *ABN languages

Advantage

Context-sensitivity can be captured.

- As soon as we add another possible referent in the context, bare noun can be used in *ABN languages.

[see Jenks 2015 for discussions in Thai]

Hindi (Vyom Sharma, pc):

I bought book, Book was expensive.

kitab_{∗i}

I bought book, and cup_j . Book was expensive.

kitab_i

(20) Maine ek kitab aur ek cup kharid-a. Kitab mehngi thi. 1SG.ERG one book.SGF and one cup buy-PAST.SGF book.SGF expensive be.PAST.SGF 'I bought a book and a cup. The book was expensive.'

Summary

- 1. A unified semantic account of anaphoric expressions
 - extensionally equivalent
 - differs in restrictions
- 2. Semantic economy principles can derive competitions
 - Bare Noun Blocking
 - (null vs. overt pronouns in Romance)
 - (pronoun vs. demonstratives in English)
 - (personal vs. demonstrative pronouns in German)

Summary

- 1. A unified semantic account of anaphoric expressions
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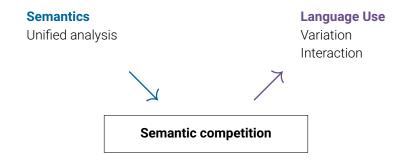
Implications

- Semantics → Language use: capturing variation
- Language use o Semantics: pointing in sign languages

Semantics o Language use

$\textbf{Semantics} \rightarrow \textbf{Language use}$

Derives gradient properties such as variation and interaction



Deriving variation

1. Cross-linguistic variation

- When does the competition lead to a penalty vs. a blocking?

Penalty vs. Blocking

2. Variation across speakers

- Anaphoric ability of bare noun depends on pronoun status

Interaction at the individual level

Repeated Noun/Name Penalty

- Adult English speakers take longer to process repeated nouns/names than pronouns.[Almor 1999; Gordon et al. 1993; Song & Fisher 2005]

A doctor; walked with Jin. The doctor; told Jin a story.

longer!

A doctor, walked with Jin. She, told Jin a story.

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[Ahn 2019]: Use of higher elements in the scale has semantic consequences. (domain accommodation)

Accommodation

I met a doctor. {She, The doctor} looked happy.

- Presupposition of the doctor is weaker than that of she.
- Use of the weaker expression results in an anti-presupposition [Heim 1991; Sauerland 2008]
- Use of the doctor implies that there was no unique female entity

Accommodation

I met a doctor. {She, The doctor} looked happy.

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Domain widening as accommodation.

$$\{\,j_3\,\} \rightarrow \{\,j_3,\,k_7\,\}$$

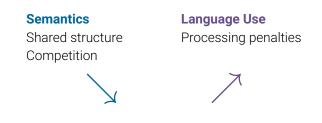
- constrained by/indicated by **focus** that triggers alternatives.

[The doctor] / [That doctor] looked happy. the DOCTOR THAT doctor

Processing costs of accommodation

- Processing costs of presupposition accommodation

[cf. Domaneschi & Di Paola 2018; Schwarz 2014; Singh et al. 2016; Tiemann et al. 2015, a.o.]



Domain widening $\{i_3\} \rightarrow \{i_3, k_7\}$

A girl walked in. {She / The girl / That girl} looked happy.

processing penalty

```
A girl walked in. {She / The girl / That girl} looked happy.

processing penalty
```

I met student. {kǎo, nakrian} was clever. blocked

A girl walked in. {She / The girl / That girl} looked happy.

processing penalty

I met student. {kǎo, nakrian} was clever. blocked

[Q] What determines whether competition leads to a penalty vs. a complete blocking?

The status of bare nouns in bare argument languages.

Something we know about bare nouns in these languages:

[Chierchia 1998b; Dayal 2004; Déprez 2005; Jenks 2015; Jiang 2017]

(21) nakrian: the student / a student / ^STUDENT / students

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 - The use of a bare noun might signal the alternative readings
 → generic reading in Thai; indefinite in Hindi

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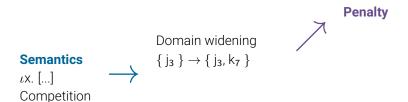
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 - English: the doctor does not have non-definite readings.
 - → processing difficulty

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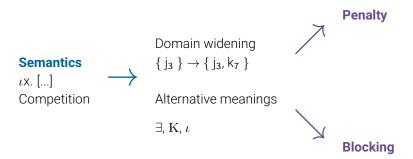
[Chierchia 1998b; Dayal 2004; Déprez 2005; Jenks 2015; Jiang 2017]

- nakrian: the student / a student / OSTUDENT / students (21)
 - The use of a bare noun might signal the alternative readings → generic reading in Thai; indefinite in Hindi
 - English: the doctor does not have non-definite readings. → processing difficulty
 - Thai: nan nakrian (only anaphoric) is not blocked. I met student. {kǎo, nakrian, nan nakrian} was clever. blocked possible

Processing vs. Blocking - Summary



Processing vs. Blocking - Summary



Deriving variation

- 1. Cross-linguistic variation
 - When does the competition lead to a penalty vs. a blocking?

Penalty vs. Blocking

2. Variation across speakers

- Anaphoric ability of bare noun depends on pronoun status

Interaction at the individual level

Interaction at the individual level

Variation in Mandarin and Hindi:

Mandarin

- Only subject bare nouns can be anaphoric
- Non-subject bare nouns can be anaphoric

[Jenks 2018]

[Dayal & Jiang in prep]

Hindi

- 3 speakers rejected anaphoric bare nouns
- 1 speaker allowed anaphoric bare nouns
- 1 speaker showed variation

Variation in Bare Noun Blocking

Present theory can predict variation in Hindi and Mandarin. (And *specifically* in Hindi and Mandarin, not others)

Variation in Bare Noun Blocking

Present theory can predict variation in Hindi and Mandarin. (And *specifically* in Hindi and Mandarin, not others)



- Mandarin simplex pronouns (ta), but not fully productive (Sun 2006)
- Hindi no distinct simplex pronouns but productive

Interaction at the individual level

Interaction at the individual level

Hindi speaker:

- (22) Maine ek kitab kharid-i. **Kitab** mehngi 1sg.erg one book.sgf buy-past.sgf book.sgf expensive thi. be.past.sgf
 'I bought a book. **The book** was expensive.'
- (23) Maine ek paudha kharid-a. maiN *paudhe-ko roz 1sgm.erg one plant.sgm buy-past.sgm 1sgm plant-dat daily pani de-ta huN.

 water give-IMPRF.sgm be.Prs.1sg
 'I bought a plant. I water the plant everyday.'

Grammaticality depends on availability of pronouns

```
(22) 'I bought a book. { book, *vo } was expensive.'
```

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Variation on pronoun status \rightarrow variation on anaphoric bare nouns.

- The competition still applies categorically.
- But the alternatives may vary in a gradient way.
 - Animacy, information structure, pragmatic constraints, etc.

Interaction - Summary

- Parametric, categorical restrictions
 - Mandarin non-subject nouns do not allow anaphoric reading. [Jenks 2018]
- Wide range of gradient data:
 - Context sensitivity (number of referents)
 - Individual-level variability

The competition mechanism allows for a more systematic account for variation than hard-wired restrictions.

 depends on the availability of alternatives, which is determined in a gradient nature.

Semantics→Language use: Summary

Capturing variation

There are many patterns we see in language use. These result from combinations of categorical rules and gradient factors.

The unified theory allows us to make systematic predictions on such gradient patterns: processing penalties, competition, and variation.

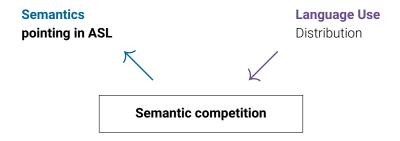
- Without language-specific stipulations

→ Empirical advantage over hard-wired principles.

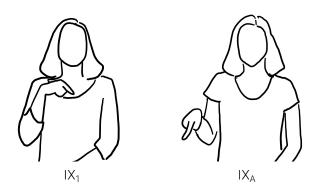
Language use o Semantics

$\textbf{Language use} \rightarrow \textbf{Semantics}$

Allows distributional patterns to inform semantic analysis



IX



- IX: indexical pointing handshape used to refer to entities

Loci

IX can refer to entities not present in the context (IX $_{\rm LOC}$) [Friedman 1975]

(24) YESTERDAY JOHN IX_A MEET IX_B DOCTOR. IX_B BUSY. [ASL] 'Yesterday John met a doctor. The doctor was busy.'

IX_{LOC}



Setting up referents in space

[Lillo-Martin & Klima 1990]:

loci: overt instantiations of **indices** that occur with pronouns

(25) Jin₁ met Jimin₂. She₁ helped her₂.

-
$$[she_1]^g = [x_1]^g = g(1) = jin$$

IX_A is like she₁

[cf. Barberà & Zwets 2013; Schlenker 2011; Schlenker et al. 2013; Steinbach & Onea 2015]

[Ahn, Kocab, & Davidson 2019] **An odd case of anaphoric indices** (At least not the one we assume for spoken languages)

- indices assigned to every discourse referent
 - present in every anaphoric relation
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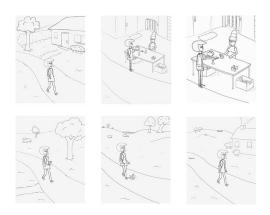
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 - infrequent in natural production data 6/340 tokens [Czubek 2017; Frederiksen & Mayberry 2016]

Production data

Natural production studies [Czubek 2017; Frederiksen & Mayberry 2016] 12 native ASL signers; 6-panel picture



Production data

How frequent is IX_{LOC}?

Production studies: not very frequent.
 [Czubek 2017; Frederiksen & Mayberry 2016]

	Null Arg	CL	N	IX	F-S	Total
Maintained	.73 (219)	.20 (63)	.07 (21)	.02 (6)	.04 (1)	310
Reintroduced	.67 (20)	0 (0)	1 (10)	0 (0)	0 (0)	30

IX is more frequent in more complex discourse.

[Czubek 2017]

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 - not always licensed

*inanimates [Ahn, Kocab, & Davidson 2019]

Felicity judgments

Felicity judgments [3 native ASL signers]

[Ahn, Kocab, & Davidson 2019]

IX_{LOC} is not obligatory or preferred:

- when it is obvious who the referent is (null or IX_{NEUT} preferred)
 - (26) #BOY IXA ENTER CLUB. IXA DANCE.
 - (27) BOY IX_A ENTER CLUB. SEE GIRL IX_B READ. IX_A DANCE. 'A boy entered a club. (He saw a girl read). He danced.'

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IX_{LOC} is not licensed:

- with inanimate referents.
 - (28) MARY IX_A BUY BOOK $?IX_B$. $?IX_B$ EXPENSIVE. (intended) 'Mary bought a book. The book was expensive.'

IX_{LOC} is not an index

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IX_{LOC}: a restriction!

IXLOC as a restriction

 $[that linguist_R] = sup [\lambda x. entity(x) \land linguist(x) \land R(x)]$

- Exophoric demonstratives in spoken languages:
 R is filled with a locational restriction provided by
 - (29) [That bottle] \rightarrow is blue.
- $[[that bottle_{\rightarrow A}]] = sup [\lambda x. entity(x) \land bottle(x) \land [[\rightarrow_A]](x)]$
- $[\![\rightarrow]\!] = \lambda a_I$. λx_e . x is at a (note that a is always saturated as soon as you point)

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Idea:
$$[X_A] = \rightarrow A = \lambda x$$
. x is at a

IX_{LOC} as an anaphoric expression

-
$$[\![\mathsf{IX}_\mathsf{A}]\!] = [\![\varnothing \mathsf{IX}_\mathsf{A}]\!] = \sup [\mathsf{entity}(\mathsf{x}) \wedge \mathsf{at} \text{-} \mathsf{A}(\mathsf{x})]$$

'the one at A'

IX_{LOC} as an anaphoric expression

-
$$[IX_A] = [\emptyset | IX_A] = \sup [entity(x) \land at-A(x)]$$

'the one at A'

IX_{LOC} in the introductory use

(anchoring use; Barberà & Zwets 2013)

JIN IX_A SIT-IN CLASS. \varnothing IX_A DANCE. supplementary restrictive

'Jin (who is at A) .. The entity that is at A ..'

$$[\![\mathsf{IX}_\mathsf{A}]\!] = [\![\varnothing \ \mathsf{IX}_\mathsf{A}]\!]$$

A modifier with a null head noun: found across languages

- English: the rich [Beatrice Santorini, pc]

- Relative clauses with null heads possible

(31) Wo mai-de hen gui.

I buy-DE very expensive

'The one I bought was expensive.'

[Mandarin; Yuyin He, pc.]

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- Deverbal anaphors in Nicaraguan Sign Language [Senghas 1995]

Deverbal anaphors

[Senghas 1995] Nicaraguan Sign Language (NSL)

'a reduced, truncated form of a recently-signed verb... to refer back to the referent in the narrative that last served as the most salient argument of that verb' (p.139).

(32) MAN FALL-DOWN-[iterative].

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[COLLECT]N LOOK UP.

'The collector looks up.'

[NSL]

IX_{LOC} is not an index; it's a modifier

- indices: assigned for every discourse referent
- loci:
 - infrequent, marked
 - not always licensed
 - tracks with contrast

1 Markedness derived

- modifiers are added when referent is not salient
- Minimize Restrictors!

2. Introductory use derived

- modifiers can attach restrictively and non-restrictively

Jin, who is at A

$$[JIN IX_A] = [jin [who is at A]]$$

'Jin'

What does it mean for Jin to be 'at A' though?

Jin, who is at A

$$[JIN IX_A] = [jin [who is at A]]$$

'Jin'

What does it mean for Jin to be 'at A' though?

Pragmatic extension of exophoric reference [Ahn 2020]

- Evident that Jin is not there
- Addressee accommodates; takes it as a label

Pragmatic extension

Using an abstract label in speech:

- My friend, A, decided to call my other friend, B, but B didn't pick up because B didn't want to talk to A.
- There is this woman, {let's call her A / who I'll call A}
- Jin $_{\rightarrow A}$ was talking to Jimin $_{\rightarrow B}$ and she $_{\rightarrow B}$ kicked her $_{\rightarrow A}$.

Pointing in sign languages: Summary

Initial focus on IX and loci

- Loci as overt indices
- Led to discussions on whether sign language makes meaning more visible than spoken languages [Schlenker 2018]

Proposal

- Evaluating IX_{LOC} in relation to other anaphoric expressions in ASL suggests that IX_{LOC} isn't an anaphoric index.
- IX_{LOC} is a modifier (just like \bigcirc in spoken languages)
 - an additional restriction added to help resolve referent
- No sign language-specific mechanism necessary!

Simplifying analyses

- The interpretation and the distribution of an anaphoric expression depends on *other* expressions available in the language
 - What an expression competes with, and what it doesn't compete with, tells us what its underlying semantics might be

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Not in this talk:

- Null arguments in East Asian languages

[Duguine 2014; Han et al. 2020; Hoji et al. 2003; Huang 1984; Kim 1999; Kurafuji 2019; Oku 1998; Otani & Whitman 1991; Park 1994; Takahashi 2007; Yoon 1985, a.o.]

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- Romance type null *pro* competes with overt pronouns
 - → Could potentially tease apart null pro vs. {ellipsis, choice function}
 - → Song & Lee 2009: No Repeated Noun Penalty in Korean {Ø, NP}

Conclusion

Conclusion

- 1. A unified semantic structure for all anaphoric expressions
 - Only differ in the kind and number of restrictions
- 2. Competition is naturally derived from the meaning
 - Bare Noun Blocking

pronoun vs. N

- 3. This provides a link between semantics and language use:
 - Semantics to Language use:
 Cross-linguistic (processing penalty vs. blocking), and individual-level (interaction between alternatives) variation
 - Language use to Semantics:
 Distributional properties inform the semantics, allowing for a simpler analysis of IX_{LOC} in ASL.

Cross-linguistic typology

An interpretation of an anaphoric expression in a language depends

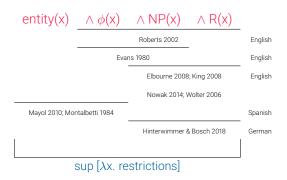
- indirectly on its morphosyntactic category
 - Not the category (pronoun, definite, demonstrative, etc.)
 - But the restrictions lexicalized
- and on the availability of other expressions in the language

 \rightarrow Motivation for looking at the full spectrum of expressions in making cross-linguistic comparisons.

A small extension

pro	pronoun	DEF	DEM	
	F	Roberts 2002		– English
	E-type (Evans 1980)			English
	Elbourne 2008; King 2008			English
		Nowak 2	014; Wolter 2006	
Mayol 20	10; Montalbetti 1984	-		Spanish
		Hinterwim	mer & Bosch 2018	German

A small extension



- Unified account that derives distributional properties with independent economy principles.

Thank you!

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